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ABSTRACT

This issue focuses on values-clarification techniques for the elementary and secondary school classroom. A variety of articles provides general discussions of values clarification, as well as specific classroom activities related to literature, composition, and discussion. A selected list of books related to values clarification is included. (AA)

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Values/Moral Education: Dilemma or Opportunity?

Shirley E. Rose

Guest Editor
for this issue of *English in Texas* is
Ron Lindsey
Director of Curriculum
Pasadena Independent School District

The Language Arts teacher is currently trying to come to grips with the values/moral education thrust being felt at all levels and in all content areas of public schools. Our subject matter, which is really humans interacting with other humans both past and present, is not only value laden but is exceptionally well suited as a vehicle for values/moral teaching. As a result of the present state of miasma regarding values/moral education, many teachers are, in exasperation, saying, "I would be happy to teach this new panacea if only I knew the objectives, methods, and expected outcomes!"

I propose to address these well-taken points and ultimately attempt clarification from a language arts frame of reference. First, however, I will discuss these points in general terms, terms all educators must understand and relate with some commonality, if sense is to be made from the present malaise.

Definitions. What is values education? At this particular time when so much is being written and spoken on the topic, it is important to begin any presentation with a definition. First what is the meaning of the term values? I accept the generally held notion of values as criteria for determining levels of goodness, worth or beauty which guide the thoughts, feelings and actions of persons. Further, "a value is not just a preference but a preference which is felt and/or considered to be justified—morally or by reasoning or by aesthetic judgment, usually by two or three or all of these" (Kluckhohn, 1951). A value becomes an internalized set of principles which morally directs the thinking and acting of individuals when faced with choice (Machotka, 1964). As is evident from the above statements, these criteria may be the same, different, or any combination thereof for various groups of people. In education we must learn to look toward the motive of an action to find the value rather than inferring the value(s) from the action alone. For example: if a man steals a loaf of bread society may rightly call him a thief; however, when we know his actions were motivated by his hungry children we may alter our assessment of his action. Whether it is more honorable (moral) to steal or to allow one's children to starve is a value judgment society has to make. One may value honesty, but when that value conflicts with another's justified need to act contrary to accepted honest behavior, we in education are often unprepared to deal effectively with the issue. Valuing then, is the "process of developing or actualizing values" (Superka, 1974).

Approaches. Values education in the public schools can and does take many forms. I would like to mention briefly a few approaches prior to focusing on the method I believe offers the greatest use for educators. The most obvious form of values education could simply be called values indoctrination or inculcation. In this instance the teacher, school, community, etc. operates by an already internalized set of guidelines and purposely intends to pass on these same values to young people. The form may be subtle as by example or it may be as direct as exhortation by teachers or other authority figures. The inculcation method does not preclude choice. Choice is offered, but often the choice is so narrow or so directed that legitimate choosing is hampered. Teachers are often not aware they are practicing value indoctrination; they are rather guiding students into "right" choices or helping them become "good citizens." One of the accepted institutions in a democratic society for values indoctrination is the church. The question for educators is "what is the legitimate function of the school in this area? Is it indoctrination?"

Recently, value clarification has become a popular and accepted form of values teaching. The work of Raths, Simon and Harmin (1966) and Simon, Kirschenbaum and Howe (1972) greatly publicized the need as well as processes for values teaching. Values clarification is a process of self analysis; it causes one to look inward and to think about those thoughts and feelings which prompt beliefs, attitudes, and actions toward self, others, and issues. Many teaching strategies have been developed which promote self analysis in students from kindergarten through grade twelve. Simon himself designed no less than seventy-nine teaching strategies in his book, *Values Clarification*. This method can and has proven most productive in assisting pupils to think introspectively. Teachers should be cautioned, however, that an "instant clarifier" may open areas in the lives of students which they may not be properly equipped with the skills to handle.

Another values teaching process is closely related to the work of psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg (1972); namely, teaching for moral reasoning. Kohlberg's theory identified six stages of cognitive moral development through which all individuals move developmentally. The moral judgments we make will depend on our stage of development. Teachers and schools can assist students in moving upward through the stages and attain at least stage four which is the modal stage in a democratic society. Teaching strategies for this approach utilize the moral dilemma. A dilemma is structured to present the main character in the situation with a real moral conflict which provokes discussion and disagreement concerning the "right" course of action involving a value conflict (Jones and Galbraith, 1975). Valuing environments develop when teachers can skillfully handle strategies, facilitate discussion so that all sides are aired, play the devil's advocate if necessary, adroitly use questioning techniques and at the same time be careful not to "lead" students into the teachers' own value decision.

Some educators have attempted to merge the last two approaches into a cohesive, consistent program.

> Values clarification helps people to know and accept themselves, to be able to make choices freely and carefully. Moral development strategies help them to subject those values and choices to critical evaluation from a moral

perspective and, it is hoped, to act morally as well as sincerely (Colby, 1975).

Consensus now seems to be emerging that, though values clarification which involves introspection, identifying values, choosing freely, and analyzing feelings is important, it is not the entire game. For students to improve in moral reasoning and approach the notion of justice outlined in the United States Constitution, they must grapple not only with the value choice of what they prefer for dinner, for example, but with the hypothetical moral issue of which person in a group should receive the last piece of bread if future food sources were unknown. Students must face the *why* and *ought* questions. Though what one decides is important, in moral development the reasons verbalized for a decision become the building stones for growth. Literature provides many opportunities for asking both *why* and *ought* questions.

The three approaches discussed above do not represent a complete typology of values teaching; however, they are among the most popular. Additionally, other approaches can be found which range from simply asking students to examine feelings and perhaps share them with the class, to a complicated structure of value analysis which is practiced especially in some of the social studies curricula.

Educators have "discovered" the affective learning domain and are attempting to implement the concept into the classroom. This is not to say that we did not have values teaching in American education before the 1970's. But, only recently have we begun to consider it carefully, structure the process for content areas and deliberately incorporate the notion into the curriculum.

Should public schools be involved in values teaching? My answer is yes. It is yes for two reasons: (1) we cannot avoid it—the valuing process is inextricably woven into the cognitive considerations, and; (2) valuing is part of thinking, and teaching individuals how to think is a major function of schools. Although Dewey (1923) laid the groundwork for us in his important work, *How We Think*, it has taken us awhile to internalize the idea. Raths drew heavily from Dewey in his *Values and Teaching*, (1966), which established the basic valuing process.

Designing Values Curriculum. *If schools should then be involved in values teaching and considering the various approaches discussed earlier, what seems workable in terms of a values curriculum for the nation's public schools?*

Values curriculum design should focus upon individual humans functioning in a democratic/equalitarian society. The study of literature spans the spectrum of men and women interacting with the needs and conflicts of universal manhood and womanhood. In order for people to understand and behave according to principles of justice, they must feel that they are worthwhile people. Therefore, I would propose the following overall direction for language arts or any values based teaching:

> The focusing goals of values-based curriculum should be the development in children of a positive self-image. This will set the pattern for utilization of decision making processes which are necessary in a democratic society.

From this overall goal, the following curriculum purposes can be subsumed:

To assist students in developing positive self-concepts which will help individuals achieve a more rewarding, enriched life;

To assist students in developing the rational thinking processes necessary for effective functioning in a free society;

To assist students in developing and refining inter- and intra-personal skills necessary for individual and group effectiveness;

To assist students in understanding the values of the society in which they live and their effective participation in that society;

To assist students in developing personal value systems.

Developing a personal value system involves: understanding how a value system evolves; appreciation of value systems operating in a multi-ethnic society; experiences in examining values, both personal and societal; and experiences in resolution of value conflict and value clarification, both personal and societal.

A values curriculum should not become an end in itself; it should exist as a helpful tool in initiating and motivating teachers to deal with values. Most teachers need training before they feel comfortable implementing a values curriculum which utilizes moral dilemmas or values clarification, for certain skills and attitudes are necessary prerequisites to values/moral teaching.

Value Assumptions. *In view of the stated descriptions and methodologies, what seems to be the logical assumptions for a modern values curriculum?*

Values teaching as it is being discussed in education circles today incorporates: the notion of personal introspection; recognition of man's dependency upon other men, or the area of interpersonal relationships; and acceptance of rational decision making as an important, I might say, vital skill in a complex, modern world. These are the built-in biases of most values curricula today.

If the above explanation of values education is creditable, then certain other assumptions must also hold; namely, one cannot be a values teacher or administrator in the sense of the above definition and indoctrinate. Of course, the best argument against indoctrination is that it does not work! The Hartshorne and May (1928) studies early proved that children who were in curricula which attempted to teach "honesty" or any other value in a direct way, were no more honest than children in classes where no such attempt was made. Students must decide for themselves that honesty is valuable. We in education can promote moral reasoning at higher levels, according to Kohlberg, if we are aware of developmental stages and how moral reasoning may be advanced in the classroom.

I believe other assumptions can be postulated which will promote values learning in the classroom. The classroom environment must be open, democratic and accepting. A degree of trust must be manifest between teacher and students and between students and students. The teacher has to be genuinely dedicated to exploring issues, feelings and beliefs non-judgmentally and must maintain respect for the process through which students are moving. These experiences develop cognitive as well as affective internalizations of students.

I use the terms democratic classroom, open classroom, or democratic teacher in the Rogerian sense (1969). Thus,

it does not imply *laissez faire*, but a caring concern for students as humans. Teachers facilitate moral growth and values clarification in students, while simultaneously recognizing and declaring their own needs and the needs of the school. Teachers, administrators, and parents need not be threatened by "democratic" values teaching. Experience has shown that once young people felt they were honestly and legitimately in control of their own destiny, they made decisions and acted more responsibly. The alternative to developing responsible decision makers in the world of *Future Shock* is too awesome to imagine. As the planet grows smaller our interpersonal relationships become more dynamic and vital. One's self-image, nurtured or crushed by classroom experiences, either facilitates or hinders personal relationships and choosing.

And so, we come full circle. If in the words of Abraham Maslow (1968) we *are* what we choose and the difference in the world is between the good and poor choosers, education has no alternative but to pursue its original design—promoting and producing good thinkers! Unless the values considerations are recognized and dealt with, one cannot become a good chooser/thinker.

Language Arts Curriculum. I view values strategies as generic across content areas. Once the classroom environment has been established, the consciousness level of teachers and administrators raised, knowledge and skills acquired, then classroom implementation can follow. Special training is not necessarily required for teachers in the various content areas. Awareness and process are vital and once acquired, curriculum implementation will be automatic since values/moral teaching will become a philosophic perspective or teaching style. This is not to imply that teachers will gain values teaching facility in the classroom by osmosis. As with other teaching methods, practice improves teachers' skills in using the methodology as well as enabling them to face issues and students less judgmentally. Most are aided in the classroom facilitation process if they have access to some kind of structured curriculum when they begin values teaching. Later they will begin to "do their own thing" as expertise develops.

To restate an earlier postulate, the language arts content which deals with humans and the human condition is readymade for valuing. Traditional content may still be utilized, but the questions asked will be different. No longer will teachers be satisfied to have students do such things as memorize names and places, identify plots, list characteristics of main characters, but they will ask *why* and *should* questions as well as feeling questions. Additionally, frame of reference considerations will be paramount to understandings. For example, structural and plot considerations aside, when teaching *To Kill a Mockingbird*, values objectives for the students might be:

> Account for the apparent value differences of Scout and Jem.
>
> Explain how geography and location might influence one's attitudes.
>
> Account for the behavior of Atticus in using a gun on Tim Johnson and defending Tom Robinson in court.

Focusing on values considerations, a teacher might ask questions such as the following:

> What seemed to be important to Atticus, Jem and Scout? What makes you think that?
>
> How did Scout feel about Atticus' refusal to shoot guns? Why? How would you feel about the situation if Atticus were your father?
>
> Did Atticus have other alternatives than defending Tom Robinson? Why did he take the case? If you were Atticus' friend would you want him to defend Tom Robinson? Why or why not?
>
> Have you or someone you know had to act contrary to a principle you really believed in? How did you feel about it?
>
> Should one ever act against his/her principles? Why or why not?
>
> Did Atticus act according to principle in the case of Tim Johnson and Tom Robinson? Explain. Do you think he did the right thing in both cases? Why or why not?

A follow-up evaluation using a values clarification format might take the form below:

"My Principles" Analysis Form

List ten or more principles that are important to you in the column on the left. Then mark with an (X) the position on the line indicating how you think you would respond most of the time.

Principles	**Response**
Example:	
0. Treat everyone fair	X would not budge ——— would budge

(Generally, this person would not budge on that principle, but in rare instances if the greater good would be served, he might budge.)

Now list yours:

1. _____ _____
2. _____ _____
3. _____ _____
4. _____ _____
5. _____ _____
6. _____ _____
7. _____ _____
8. _____ _____
9. _____ _____
10. _____ _____

I noted that _____

_____ was important to me.

I feel _____

about that. In the future I will probably act _____

_____

when this principle is questioned or challenged.

This example represents only one of many approaches which could be taken with the same content. Other viable methods would include various role play situations which

would sharpen the frame of reference of each character. Additional evaluations could include the reshaping, in essay form, of the major characters into different personalities with an explanation as to why; rewriting the ending of the novel to conform to the students' personal principles or those of any of the major characters and giving a full explanation.

In any case, students are asked to examine their own value systems and feelings against not only those of the novelist but of their peers. Opportunity for moral growth and personal introspection are inherent in the design of this teaching strategy.

Conclusion. I hope I have accomplished the goals stated in the first two paragraphs and have not further muddied the water. Definitions and approaches though not exhaustive were illustrative of the current emphasis and literature in the field. These were followed by a brief explanation of the purposes and shortcomings as a form of constructive analysis. (For an in-depth critique of the values movement see *Phi Delta Kappan*, June, 1975). The theoretical designs and implications were illustrated using the novel, *To Kill A Mockingbird*. Hopefully, transference can be made to other literature and for that matter to other content areas.

Some of you will agree with the approaches, biases, assumptions and examples postulated; others will strongly disagree. The issue will be clarified as the dialog is broadened. Whatever the case, it now seems that education is beginning to address the affective domain and the values/moral teaching process which long lay undeveloped. As professionals we are challenged to accept the promises of this approach as a necessary opportunity for values/moral development for students and not merely a dilemma with no approachable solution.

(Dr. Rose is a curriculum consultant for the Harris County Department of Education, Houston.)

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Values Clarification and Moral Development: Strategies for the Classroom Teacher

Susan J. Sheridan

Nancy and Betty have been good friends for a long time. They have gone to school together through elementary school, junior high school and now are in their junior year at Northridge High School. Nancy has confided in Betty that she really likes Ken. She has been trying to get him to ask her out all year. Ken is good-looking, smart and first string on the football team. It's understandable that Nancy should be so crazy about him. Betty thinks Ken is nice, too, but her main interest has been in helping Nancy in this relationship. She has talked to Ken finding out all kinds of things for Nancy. It's now two weeks before the junior prom and Nancy and Betty realize that Ken has been hanging around them more than usual. One night Ken calls and asks Betty to the junior prom. Betty would really love to go out with Ken. He's so cute and popular. She never dreamed he'd ask her out. But what about Nancy? What should Betty do? Why?

Students face dilemmas like this one every day, some more important in terms of involvement and long range consequences. Two important figures in the field of valuing and moral development believe teachers should help students develop skill in handling the problems and decisions facing them today.

One of these men, Sidney Simon, believes that students should be helped to clarify their own values. The approach he espouses is not concerned with the content of people's values but instead with the process of valuing. He places importance on how people come to choose their values. Simon, quoting Louis E. Raths, states that there are seven sub-processes which can be categorized under three main areas in the valuing process. The first category is prizing one's beliefs and behaviors. This category includes prizing, cherishing and publicly affirming the values when appropriate. The second category has to do with choosing one's beliefs and behaviors—choosing from alternatives, choosing after considering consequences and choosing freely. The last category, acting on one's belief, involves not only actions but also actions that exhibit a pattern, consistency and repetition. Simon further states that the goal of the process of valuing is to ". . . help students become aware of the beliefs and behaviors they prize and would be willing to stand up for in and out of the classroom" (Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum, 1972, p. 20).

The outcomes of the valuing process are related to moral development. Lawrence Kohlberg, in his theory of moral development identifies six stages through which all people progress. These stages define an invariant sequence. That is, people start at Stage 1 and then progress to Stage 2 by integrating and reorganizing new more complex material with Stage 1 reasoning. After Stage 2, as they have more experiences and see incongruities in their thinking and understandings, they refine Stage 2 thinking

and progress to Stage 3 reasoning and so on through the sequence. Because each progressive stage builds upon the previous stage, all go through them in the same order. The rate of progress through the stages varies with individuals, and progress may stop at any of the stages, 1 through 6. The six stages may be briefly defined as:

Stage 1—Punishment-Obedience Orientation. This stage is characterized by avoidance of punishment. The physical consequences of an act determine its goodness or badness. There is a deference to power, bigness and punishment-giving ability. People are good if they are big and powerful. Authorities are seen as having possession rights over subordinates. One defers to those with power, status and possessions. The rules maintaining order are: obedience to the strong by the weak, and punishment of those who deviate.

Stage 2—Morality of Instrumental Egoism and Exchange. The preoccupation at Stage 2 is with satisfying hedonistic desires and interests. Acts are evaluated in terms of their consequences, especially in relationship to the actor. One of the main ideas is get what you can for "Number One" and don't get caught.

Stage 3—"Good Boy-Nice Girl" Orientation. The extreme concern at Stage 3 is with social acceptability. The cognitive preoccupation is with maintaining positive relationships. Laws and rules are guides to persons striving to be good. Rules are then seen as stereotypes of socially desirable behavior. Behavior is for the first time judged by intention and "she meant well" becomes important.

Stage 4—Law and Order Orientation. At this stage preservation of the larger system is all important, and breaking rules of laws is seen as causing chaos and destroying the larger system. Right behavior consists of respecting authority and doing one's duty for the larger system.

Stage 5—Social Contract and Social Unity. Stage 5 reasoning considers general individual rights and standards as important and needing critical examination. There is a clear understanding of the relativism of individual values and the need for procedural rules for reaching consensus. An emphasis is placed on the "legal point of view." However, instead of rigid adherence to unmovable laws, the notion is: If a law or rule is unjust in terms of social utility it must be changed. Cutside of the law, agreement and contract between persons determine obligation.

Stage 6—The Morality of Universal Ethical Principles. This stage of development is governed by two basic principles: (1) the principle of justice, equal considerations of the claims of all human beings, and (2) the principle of respect for personality, of treating human beings as ends in themselves. At this stage action is to be based on a hierarchy of general moral values instead of a hierarchy of concrete objects valued in particular situations.

Anne Colby states in *The Harvard Review* "Although the values clarification and moral development approaches seem incompatible in some areas, integration of the two is both possible and desirable" (Colby, 1975, p. 135). She further states that, "In spite of the differences between values clarification and moral development, their goals are not radically disparate" (p. 140). Kohlberg in an interview for *Learning* magazine, stated, "I think they have some useful techniques. Values clarification is a very useful component of moral education, and we try to do some of that ourselves" (Kohlberg and Simon, 1972, p. 19). In this same article, Simon says of the Kohlbergean model, "I think Kohlberg has developed a very sound research instrument in developmental framework that one can respect fully" (p. 19). Kohlberg complains, however, that Simon has no framework of developmental progression so one cannot really see if his activities produce growth. Simon, in turn, complains that although Kohlberg has a sound theory, he lacks methods that are workable for teachers to use in the classroom. It is hoped that in the examples to follow Kohlberg's moral development model can be combined with Simon's value clarification activities to produce exciting and growth-producing experiences for students and teachers.

The following example is a strategy that was used in a sixth grade classroom. The demonstration teacher gave the students a copy of the following dilemma and read it with them.

What Should Mary Do?

Next to Christmas and birthdays, Mary liked drawing and painting more than anything else in the world. She liked to draw sleek brown horses with white spots on their legs. She liked to paint pictures of tulips and robins. And she spent many hours drawing girls in long, glittering dresses.

"Mary is a real little artist," her mother said one evening. "I wish we had money to buy her all the paints and paper and crayons she needs." Mary's father sighed. With seven other children in the family, there were more important things to buy, such as shoes and caps and sweaters.

At school, Mary's teacher gave her the job of cleaning out the supply cupboard. Every Friday, Mary stayed after school to sort out the crayons, put the paints and chalk away, stack the drawing paper, and sharpen the pencils.

Sometimes the teacher would come by and say, "Oh, that paint is all dried up. Better throw that jar out, Mary" or "Why don't you throw away all the little stubs of crayons? The children don't use them."

But short, broken pieces were better than no crayons at all, so Mary always took them home instead of throwing them out. All week long she would look forward to Friday. She wondered how many pieces she'd find, or how many sheets of drawing paper had marks on them, or how many jars of paint might be drying up. Always, instead of throwing these things out, Mary slipped them in her lunch box and took them home.

Before long Mary was taking home bigger and bigger pieces of crayon. Sometimes she took a few sheets of drawing paper that weren't marked up at all or a jar of paint that was still quite soft. Every week it was harder and harder for her to decide what was good enough to leave in the cupboard and what she should take home. One day the teacher said, "My goodness! What happened to the magenta crayon? I was sure we had one here." And Mary remembered that she had taken it home because it had broken in two. Mary began to feel very uncomfortable. She was not sure what was right and what was wrong. Nobody else knew what she had been doing. Maybe she should stop taking anything. But it did seem foolish to throw out useful materials. What should Mary do?

The reason for reading the story aloud was to insure that the dilemma was communicated as clearly as possible to all of the students. Since this was a Plan A school, some of

the students in the class were unable to read the story. (In Plan A schools, special education students are in regular classes.) Precautions were taken so that these students were neither embarrassed nor left out of the process which they could add to and from which they could benefit.

After reading and hearing the dilemma, the students were asked if any words needed defining. Main points of the story were clarified. The students then formed groups of five members which discussed what Mary should do and why. Each group chose a moderator to report its conclusions to the class.

In the classroom it was noted that the individual group discussions could be improved by more structure. For this purpose the teacher suggested to the class that in each group someone might decide what Mary should do from the point of view of her father, someone else from the point of view of the mother, a third from the point of view of the teacher, and a fourth from Mary's point of view. This role taking assignment seemed to give the desired structure to the discussions. Through taking different roles the students recognized also that although the actual decision about Mary's behavior or what she should do might be the same, the reasons for deciding on that particular behavior could be different from different people's point of view.

Each group of students then filled in the following sentence completions to give a format for their reporting to the class:

> We think that Mary should . . . because . . .
>
> If we were in Mary's position we probably would . . . because . . .

These sentence completions were used not only to give an organization to the information reported but also to help point out that maybe what a person does is different from what should be done.

In reporting back to the class the recorders were asked to read sentence completions for their groups. Then, because of the role taking aspect of the task, each student was asked to name the role he or she took and what a person in that role would think Mary should do and why.

One of the interesting observations of the teacher was that as a whole the six students (one from each group) who played Mary's father thought that she should give the crayons, paints and paper back. The father would get an extra job to buy the art supplies for his daughter. These were very proud fathers!

After the entire experience the students were asked to evaluate the lesson on 3 × 5 index cards. They were to report if they enjoyed the experience and the aspects which they did and did not like about it. Some of the actual quotes are as follows:

> I liked very good. I liked about Mary and I liked wend the father heid go take it back.
>
> What I like about Friday was the grope I was in was very nice. I had good ideals about what we were talking about.
>
> I liked today because it was fun and we worked in groups. Nothing was boring today.
>
> I liked Friday pretty good because we didnt have to do any work.

In evaluating this experience from the point of view of the demonstration teacher certain points should be mentioned. The students apparently were unaccustomed to working in groups. Perhaps this is the reason why more structure was needed for their discussions. Students cannot be thrown into an experience like working in groups with no preparation or developmental activities and be expected to function in a completely successful manner.

Secondly, the more exciting and controversial the dilemma the louder is the volume of noise in the room. It is understandable to have noise. However, if noise is a problem in a school, precautions should be taken. Teachers can tell the difference between interactions that are loud but productive and those that are non-productive.

Another point is that the dilemma needs to be carefully chosen. It should be relevant to the particular students, their age group, perhaps socio-economic status and maturity level. Often there is the desire to introduce a dilemma that has really happened in the classroom. If the problem is threatening to a particular student or group of students it might inhibit real discussion.

The final and most important point is that although the students led their own discussions, the teacher had an important role in the process. The teacher carefully monitored the process through asking probing questions and capitalizing on the students' decision making skills.

The following example is of a high school learning experience which again attempts to combine the strategies of Simon and Kohlberg. In a recent article in the *Phi Delta Kappan*, Kohlberg (1975) lists three important conditions for moral discussions:

> (1) Exposure to the next higher stage of reasoning. (2) Exposure to situations posing problems and contradictions for the child's current moral structure, leading to dissatisfaction with his current level, and (3) An atmosphere of interchange and dialog combining the first two conditions, in which conflicting moral views are compared in an open manner (p. 675).

These conditions, he believes, facilitate growth to the student's fullest potential. It appears that these conditions are present in the following example and it is hoped that growth will be encouraged.

Carlos' Problem

Carlos has just been called into his counselor's office and wonders what this is all about. His counselor finally arrives and tells him that he has great news. The big electrical company whose main offices are located in town is looking for bright young engineers. They have asked the area high schools for lists of potential scholarship recipients. Carlos' name was submitted along with nine other graduating seniors. After reviewing the records, Carlos was chosen to receive a scholarship. This means that the company will pay for four years of college enabling him to graduate as an engineer. Room and board plus books and a living allowance will also be provided at the university.

This is the greatest news Carlos has ever heard. He can hardly wait to tell his family. They will be so proud of him. He's the first one in the family ever to attend college. On the way home from school he tells Rose the exciting news. Although she says she's happy for him, she sounds rather strange. When Carlos looks at her he sees tears in her eyes. He said, "Hey, what's the matter? I thought you'd be happy for me."

She tells him that she is happy for him but she is worried about their plans to get married. They were going to marry right after high school. Carlos suddenly gets quiet too. He had not even asked the counselor if Rose could come to the university with him. How could he have been so selfish?

The next morning Carlos goes to his counselor's office before

class. He asks if Rose can come to the university with him. He explains that they have been planning to marry right after graduation. Mr. Johnson, the counselor, states that the scholarship includes room and board in the dorm on campus—not married students' housing. He asks if they can wait until Carlos graduates from the university to marry. He also points out that it will be easier for Carlos to get through school without having to worry about a wife.

Carlos leaves the office terribly dejected, for he knows Rose won't want to wait four years to marry. Her older sister married before she was Rose's age, and her mother was also married by the time she was sixteen. Rose has been waiting and looking forward to marrying after graduation.

What will Carlos do? He loves Rose but this scholarship is the chance of a lifetime.

How should he decide?

The students were given this dilemma to read and asked to decide what they thought Carlos should do. They responded individually in writing before the problem was discussed in class. These high school students were told the defining characteristics of a dilemma:

> That is, decisions are difficult to make when two important values (sometimes called issues) of an individual come into conflict so that only one can be satisfied. Some issues which are important to people have to do with laws or rules, some have to do with affection and friendship, while others have to do with being honest and keeping one's word. Sometimes issues involve conscience or even life itself. In a dilemma the individual must decide which issue of those in conflict he values most.

The class then discussed which issues might be in conflict in the Carlos dilemma. Some students felt the conflict was between affection (love) for Rose and Carlos' own advancement which was important in terms of responsibility to his family. Other students felt the issues involved Carlos' keeping his word to Rose or his chance to progress himself. Still other students honestly could not see the conflict in values because they had already decided what Carlos should do.

Before resolving Carlos' and Rose's problem, the teacher added another element to the learning experience. Students were asked to form groups of about six or seven members. The groups were to assume that Carlos and Rose, since they were very close to their families, wanted to discuss the problem with their parents. A joint family conference was arranged and Carlos and Rose met with their parents to discuss their problem and a possible solution. Each person in a group chose a role to play in the "family conference."

Since some students are either unaccustomed to role playing or uncomfortable with the role playing situation, it helps to write out a point of view for them to assume. The real objective of this role playing experience is to have students determine for themselves what the point of view of the father might be as contrasted with the point of view of the mother, or even Carlos and Rose.

The role playing situation is rich with possibilities. It might be expanded to include observation and evaluation of group interactions. Group roles such as the group leaders, followers or blockers could be explored. It might also include a discussion of feelings one gets when being blocked or ignored. The role playing situation might also include a discussion of communication skills and techniques. In this particular learning experience the main objective for the role playing situation was to encourage students to look at a dilemma from different points of view. People who have been identified as reasoning at Kohlberg's higher levels of moral reasoning (Stage 3 and above) are reportedly better able to see problems from various points of view, thus enabling them to evaluate the many ramifications of the situation.

The culmination of this role playing experience was to report to the class the final conclusion of the family meeting. Reporters for each group were asked to state what the conclusion was and why this conclusion was reached. It is most important to ask the "why" question. The reasons why determine the level or complexity of thinking. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. What is most important is the justification for choosing one solution over another.

After the role playing experience the students were asked if they would enjoy hearing what another class had to say about this same dilemma. At this point the students were exposed to a variety of stages of reasoning. (According to Kohlberg this exposure promotes growth.) The students then read with the teacher the script from the other class' round table discussion concerning the Carlos and Rose dilemma. According to James Rest (1971) people prefer their own stage of reasoning, or reasoning one stage above their own. With this in mind, the teacher asked the students to choose from the other class discussion the arguments which they thought were best. Students then filled out a worksheet restating the argument in their own words. Preferences may determine a higher stage of thinking, but growth is shown when the students can state the essence of the high level thinking in their own words.

The last activity with the Carlos and Rose dilemma was an evaluation by the students. Following is the "values voting" experience which the students seemed to enjoy (Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum, 1972).

Values Voting

Directions: Raise your hand and wave it if you strongly agree with the questions I'm about to ask. Raise your hand if you agree. Thumbs down if you disagree. Thumbs up and down if you strongly disagree and arms crossed if you don't know or don't want to answer. That's fine, too!

1) How many of you knew what Carlos should do right away after reading the dilemma?
2) How many of you have not changed your opinion since that time?
3) How many think Carlos should take the scholarship and forget about Rose?
4) How many think Rose should finish school and then find a job near Carlos' college?
5) How many like peanut butter sandwiches?
6) How many think Rose should join a Women's Lib movement?
7) How many liked hearing the other class' discussion?
8) How many changed your ideas after hearing the other class' discussion?
9) How many of you would have had different opinions if you were Carlos and Rose?
10) How many of you wish Carlos and Rose had never met?

(Sheridan, 1975, pp. 26-27)

One of the objectives of the preceding set of learning experiences was to try to operationalize Kohlberg's three criteria for moral discussions. It was hoped that the students would have the opportunity to clarify their own values. This would be accomplished by choosing from alternatives and stating publicly their values concerning the dilemma. These exercises reflect the values clarification process of Sidney Simon.

Two reactions which are often heard to presentations of learning experiences such as the two preceding ones are: "I liked this because we didn't have to work," stated by students; and "We have been doing this sort of thing for years," stated by teachers. Both statements, this writer believes, are very positive and encouraging. First of all, learning can and should be fun. If students are involved and enjoying their experiences at school perhaps there will be more carry-over into their personal lives than if they are unhappy at school, waiting to get out to "do their own thing." The teachers' statements that we have been doing this for years is also very encouraging. Certainly, good, sensitive teachers interested in relevant discussions and activities for their students have been doing many of these activities for years. This statement illustrates a final point. The classroom teacher is the real expert and the real change agent in the lives of students. The teacher ultimately determines and is responsible for the learning experiences in the classroom. And it is these experiences which help to shape the lives and attitudes of students.

(Susan J. Sheridan is supervisor of the Heights Branch of the Harris County Center for the Retarded, Houston.)

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Clarifying Values Through Literature

William E. Klingele
and
Philip J. Besonen

Youngsters growing through adolescence experience a most difficult time in their lives. It is at this time that youngsters progress through various stages of development pertaining to aptitudes, religion, morals, attitudes, values, and decision making.

Adolescents are troubled with personal questions concerning their physical, social, emotional, and intellectual selves. They question their desire to be different, their desire for friends, and their apparent need to make decisions. Their independence, mood instability, and sensitivity all cause them to question their emotional stability. Their curiosity and inquisitiveness appear enriched in spite of what they may or may not be learning in school. But most important to them are answers to personal questions involving government, religion, sex, family, morals, drugs, and various other individual concerns.

One of education's solutions to assisting students faced with these problems is a process of values clarification. Values clarification has become one element of the philosophical characteristics of English classrooms in the modern secondary school.

Proponents of values clarification have recognized the need to provide students with a process to assist them in shaping their lives, and at a time when they are most in need of, and most vulnerable for constructive character development. The English classroom provides a most vulnerable and obvious opportunity for integrating values clarification with English content.

Values clarification is a process whereby students have the opportunity to examine, weigh, and reflect upon these pressing concerns. Simply stated, values clarification is a seven step process classified into three major categories—*choosing*, *prizing*, and *acting*. *Choosing* includes: (1) freely, (2) from alternatives, and (3) after consideration of consequences. *Prizing* involves (4) cherishing or a positive feeling and (5) public affirmation. *Acting* focuses on (6) doing what one professes to value and (7) repeating this same behavior over a period of time. Raths, Harmin, and Simon[1], the developers and disseminators of this particular value theory point out that students also must have the option not to look at their values. As a result of this option, value clarification as a process is non-threatening. This approach to values does not suggest that a certain set of values must be instilled in each student. Exactly the opposite is the case. Students must be allowed to develop their own set of values, values that they choose, prize, and act upon.

It is the belief of the writers that students who are allowed the opportunity to explore values questions in a non-judgmental and non-moralizing way will move toward the adoption of universally accepted values. These include honesty, truth, justice, brotherhood, individual worth, and self direction. In their behavior the students become more concerned and aware of self actualization and less charac-

terized by what Carl Rogers calls "introjected patterns" of action.

It seems natural then that the highest level of teaching will involve the clarification of values. It means that each English teacher has a responsibility for integrating values clarification into the teaching of subject matter. In doing so, the teacher encourages the student to reflect on the dilemmas which are illuminated through the study of the particular topic or unit included for instruction. Elements of the seven step process are systematically employed to facilitate values clarification.

The following examples of values level teaching were developed by English teachers. These teachers have learned the process of integrating values clarification into the teaching of subject matter. For these teachers the practice of teaching at values level is a daily occurrence.

Our Town
Thornton Wilder

Facts Level

1. What award did Thornton Wilder receive for *Our Town?*
2. What is the function of the stage manager?
3. Why does Dr. Gibbs scold George?
4. In the flashback what does Emily tell George that he has been doing?
5. What happens after George orders strawberry sodas?
6. Where does George go on the morning of his wedding?
7. Who is Simon Stimson?
8. How does Emily die?

Concepts Level

1. Why does Wilder use a bare stage in his play?
2. What characteristics of human nature are revealed in the characters of Emily, George, the Gibbs, the Webbs?
3. One critic says that nothing sums up the essence of Wilder's philosophy in *Our Town* better than the address of a letter sent to a Grover's Corners' girl: "June Crofut, the Crofut Farm, Grover's Corners, Sultan County, New Hampshire, United States of America, Continent of North America, Western Hemisphere, the Earth, the Solar System, the Universe, the Mind of God." What is this philosophy?
4. What attitudes toward love and marriage are presented in the play?
5. What ideas of life and death are presented in the graveyard scene?

Values Level

1. Consider the following:
   A. One morning at breakfast Rebecca Gibbs says: "Mama, do you know what I love most in the world—do you?—Money." What do you love most in the world?
   B. Mrs. Webb tells Emily that she would rather have her children healthy than bright. Which would you rather be? Which would you rather your children be? Explain.
   C. George is talking to Emily about school. He says that he thinks Emily must like school. Emily replies: "Well, I always feel it's something you have to go through.' What is your definition of school?
2. George decides that he would rather get married than go to agriculture school. If you had to make a choice between school and marriage, which would you choose? Why?
3. George and Emily both feel a little nervous and doubtful before their wedding. Have you ever felt uneasy before an important happening in your life? What was it?
4. Do you agree with Emily that saints and poets are the only ones who ever realize life while they live it? Are you "aware of life?" What could you do to become more aware?
5. Emily says that live people are troubled from morning to night. Are you troubled by anything? What things in the past have troubled you?

The Fall of the House of Usher
Edgar Allan Poe

Facts Level

1. What is the mood that Poe sets for the story in the opening paragraph? Which phrases particularly help to create this mood?
2. Who is the narrator of the story?
3. Why does the narrator visit Roderick Usher?
4. What are some of the symptoms of Roderick's illness?
5. What is the relationship between Madeline and Roderick?
6. What happens as the narrator reads the *Mad Trist* to Roderick?
7. Describe what the narrator and Roderick see as the door opens?

Concepts Level

1. Compare Poe's description of the house with his description of Roderick.
2. There are various kinds of evil: revenge, torture, murder, fear, the supernatural, insanity. Which types are evident in this story?
3. How does the isolation in the story add to the suspense?
4. What is symbolized by the ballad, "The Haunted Palace"?
5. Is there a climax in the story? If so, at what point does it occur?
6. What is the significance of the fall of the house in the closing scene?
7. If you were going to paint a picture depicting any part of the story, what colors would you select? Why?

Values Level

1. If you had been in the narrator's position, how would you have reacted? Have you ever been as horrified as he was?
2. The narrator described his friendship with Roderick near the beginning of the story. "Although, as boys, we had been even intimate associates, yet I really knew little of my friend." Have you ever felt this way about one of your friends?
3. If you had been in Roderick's position and realized

that you had buried your sister alive, what would you have done? Have you ever been in a situation where you realized that something terrible was happening and did nothing about it? What finally happened?

4. Express your personal reaction to a character or a scene in the story.
5. Write a short story of your own dealing with the supernatural. Include at least one other type of evil.

Fable
Ralph Waldo Emerson

The mountain and the squirrel
Had a quarrel;
And the former called the latter "Little Prig."
Bun replied,
"You are doubtless very big;
But all sorts of things and weather
Must be taken in together
To make up a year and a sphere.
And I think it's no disgrace
To occupy my place.
If I'm not so large as you,
You are not so small as I,
And not half so spry.
I'll not deny you make
A very pretty squirrel track;
Talents differ; all is well and wisely put;
If I cannot carry forests on my back,
Neither can you crack a nut."

Facts Level

1. Who are the two characters speaking?
2. What are their names?
3. What are they doing?

Concepts Level

1. What are some characteristics of Bun?
2. Explain how the use of the fable style adds to the poem.
3. How are the squirrel and the mountain different?

Values Level

1. Name one other poet and tell why you like his work.
2. What things can you do well? What things are you not skilled at?
3. Could you improve on the things you are not skilled at? How?
4. Do you ever put others down because you feel that you are better than they?

(Dr. Klingele and Dr. Besonen are both Assistant Professors of Secondary Education at the University of Arkansas, Fayetteville.)

[1] Raths, Louis, Harmin, Merrill, Simon, Sidney, *Values in Teaching* Columbus, Ohio: Charles Merrill Publishing Co., 1966.

Classroom Values Clarification Activities

Laveria F. Hutchison

Do you have questions about reading which you would like to see answered in this column? If so, please send them to Dr. Joanne Olson or to Dr. Laveria F. Hutchison, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Houston, Houston, Texas 77004. Replies appear only in this column, and as many of your questions will be answered as space and time permit.

Dr. Hutchison is an assistant professor at the University of Houston. She has been an elementary classroom teacher, and she works with undergraduate and graduate students in university classes.

The school in which I teach plans to implement a classroom values component in grade 5. I understand the classroom values system, but I would probably experience difficulty trying to explain this concept to my students. I really want my students to initially learn the concept of values clarification through several interesting activities that can be developed in either a group situation or in an independent activity. Do you have any suggestions for this type of activity?

Yes, I'll assist you in identifying two values clarification activities that might be used in your classroom as a group activity or as an individual activity. Perhaps the most effective way to explain the values clarification format for the activities is through a brief discussion of its components: (a) description of the situation (several paragraphs are stated to explain the situation to the students); (b) directions are provided for individual and group usage of the activity; (c) several columns are provided for personal judgment and for group interaction; and (d) teacher-group interaction is provided for the purposes of understanding students' values and understanding students' methods for clarifying values. You should remember that correct answers do not exist, because there is not an absolute control on students' values.

Activity #1/Teacher's Pet *(Situation)* You are a student in a fifth grade class. Miss Brock, your teacher, has been called to the office on very important business. Before she left the room, she placed Robert in charge.

Things go well for a while. Then one of Robert's friends tosses an eraser to a boy on the other side of the room. A girl is hit! That's when it all starts! Soon items are flying from all sides of the room.

Robert looks as if he doesn't know what to do. He tries to tell the boys and girls that they will get into trouble, but the "rough-housing" continues. Soon the laughing and loud talking is thunderous!

Robert walks toward the door. He looks out and down the hall. Loudly he yells, "Sh-h! Miss Brock is coming!"

A dead silence falls over the room. Everyone sits quietly at his desk and pretents to be doing work. Miss Brock walks into the room and looks directly at Robert. "Did I hear a commotion coming from this room?" Robert looks at her and then at us . . . .

(Directions to the Students) Listed below are the alternatives available to Robert. In column A, rank the alternatives in terms of their importance to you, making the most important number 1, the second most important number 2, and so on through number 5.

Now get together with the other members of your group. In column B, rank the alternatives decided upon by you and members of your group. This ranking must satisfy each member of the group and reflect the best thinking of each member.

Alternatives	Individual Ranking (Column A)	Group Ranking (Column B)
1. Tell Miss Brock the noise wasn't from our room.	_____	_____
2. Tell Miss Brock exactly what happened.	_____	_____
3. Say nothing! (Robert is Miss Brock's "pet" so he won't have to admit anything.)	_____	_____
4. Just say everything is all right.	_____	_____
5. Say that there had been a little noise, but that it wasn't really anyone's fault.	_____	_____

Activity #2/What Should I Do? *(Situation)* Tommy and Frank were hot and tired from playing stick ball. Tommy's mother had given him 50¢ for refreshments at the corner store. Tommy and Frank decided to use the money and hopped on their bikes for a quick ride to the store. Frank decided that he wanted a popsicle which was priced 20¢ and Tommy wanted a soft drink which was priced 25¢. Taking the money carefully out of his pocket, Tommy counted out the 50¢ and gave it to the young man at the counter. The young man at the counter quickly returned 15¢ to Tommy and turned away to wait on another customer. What should Tommy do?

(Directions to the Students) Same as above.

Alternatives	Individual Ranking (Column A)	Group Ranking (Column B)
1. Return the money immediately.	_____	_____
2. Say nothing and keep the money for himself.	_____	_____
3. Tell his parents.	_____	_____
4. Tell Frank and divide the money with Frank.	_____	_____
5. Keep the money and place it in a community project's collection.	_____	_____

Hints to Remember. (a) These activities may be adapted to various situations. (b) You should not force "correct" answers for this type of activity. (c) You should evaluate each student's responses individually and carefully.

The Question of Values—The Value of Questions

Pat Bouchette Farley

Values clarification, moral dilemmas, decision making, moral education—these terms and others with similar meanings appear with increasing regularity in professional journals, school curricula, and agenda for teacher inservice training. In the article, "Moral Education: Where Sages Fear to Tread," David Purpel and Kevin Ryan say, "The moral education of children is one of the school's oldest missions and one of our newest fads." In the past, moral education was incidental; the teacher, serving as a model for student behavior, knew "right from wrong" and admonished students who dared to question a rather rigid set of rules agreed upon by parents, teacher, and the community as a whole. When the pace of life was somewhat slow, these accepted rules were adequate guidance for making most decisions. Today, however, mobility, new experience, constant change, and exposure to a myriad of viewpoints often place individuals in personal dilemmas which can best be solved by process rather than rule. This process is the ability to question, look at several solutions, weigh the consequences of each decision, and decide the best solution based on current information and personal values. Teaching this process, then, is a prime responsibility of the teacher, and the key to teaching the process is the instructor's skill in questioning strategies.

Teachers must first learn to ask open-ended questions which allow students to express their opinions honestly. A question such as "Do you think false advertising is wrong?" has two possible answers, "Yes" or No." Unless students volunteer reasons for their answers, the discussion stops until the teacher asks another question. To rephrase the question in this way, "What is wrong with false advertising?" would probably stimulate a better discussion, but an attitude is built into the question; and although the teacher may want all students to think false advertising wrong, the class has been told what to believe, and there is every chance that students who have other opinions will remain quiet and stop listening to the discussion. Suppose, however, the teacher asks, "How do some of you feel about false advertising?" Here, all students can express opinions with no preconceived notions as to the "correct" answer. This question provides for all students' opinions to be expressed and gives members of the class a chance to hear what others believe.

If students are given this freedom to express exactly what they think, teachers are obligated to ask questions that elicit reasons for opinions. When students must support their feelings and attitudes, they sometimes become

aware that they believe something but do not know what leads them to think in such a way. On the other hand, should they be able to support their beliefs adequately, then the class members have the benefit of other viewpoints and as a result may look at their own opinions in a new light. This kind of discussion stimulates students to broaden their knowledge and reaffirm or question their own opinions. Through this process, character growth may occur in a natural way.

A third skill necessary for the teacher who asks open questions and requires reasons is the ability to listen actively to student responses. According to Carl Rogers and Richard Farson, active listening is hearing all that a person says and also appreciating both the meaning and feeling behind what is being said. They regard active listening as a way of bringing about change in people. To listen in this fashion takes a great deal of practice. Teachers must train themselves to rephrase the message, accept what they hear without condemning, and clarify any misunderstandings in meaning. If teachers listen in this way, students begin to feel accepted as responsible people whose opinions are valued, and generally they learn to look at their opinions and reasoning much more critically before speaking. When this happens, a discussion leaves the superficial stage and becomes an honest exchange. Responses such as, "You know that's wrong," "Where did you ever get such an idea," or "Don't be silly; nobody thinks that," inhibit character growth and cause students to give dishonest answers which "please the teacher" and prevent ridicule or punishment. Real listening takes skill and courage, but when dealing with moral issues both are necessary, otherwise teachers may yield to the temptation to teach their own values and attitudes, and thus, delay or even prevent moral development in their students.

As teachers become adept at questioning, moral education can become an integral part of the course content. All disciplines offer opportunities for clarifying values and decision making, but the English class seems almost ideal for this purpose. Since students read literary pieces based on conflicts which create moral dilemmas, and if it can be assumed that the literature studied is selected because it is appropriate for certain age groups, then the conflicts involved would probably be problems that students have already faced or may meet at any moment. In discussing any conflict, teachers may use a series of questions such as this adaptation from the *Hilda Taba Teaching Strategies Program:*

> "How do you think Huck Finn felt when Miss Watson constantly fussed at him?"
>
> "Why do you think he felt that way?"
>
> "What do some of the rest of you think?"
>
> "Why do you think he felt mad, hurt, sad, etc?"
>
> "Why do you think Miss Watson picked at him?"
>
> "Why would she do that?"
>
> "How do you think she felt?"
>
> "Why do you say that?"

From this discussion of an incident in a novel, the teacher can relate the incident to students by asking:

> "Have any of you had a similar experience or has someone you know experienced something like this?" (Be sure to give them an opportunity to discuss in third person—no names, please—since many students are reluctant to relate their own experiences.)

This line of questioning can help students see how both people in a conflict feel and why they felt and reacted as they did. This not only clarifies their own feelings, but gives the entire class a look at both sides of an issue and some of the reasons that a conflict situation develops.

Finally, the teacher would want students to begin to see alternatives by questioning students in this manner:

> "What are some other ways Huck could have reacted?"
>
> "What would happen if he did that?"
>
> "What leads you to think that would be the result?"
>
> "What are some other things he could have done?"

(Always carry any answer through to results and reasons.)

At this point the teacher could use role play, small group discussions, hypothetical situations, or any number of activities to arrive at a "best" decision. For the sake of brevity, let us assume that the teacher continues the class discussion. The questions would sound something like this:

> "After hearing several different things Huck could have done, what do you consider to be the best action he could have taken?"
>
> "Why do you think that is best?"
>
> "What do some of the rest of you think?"

(Again, go through consequences or results and reasons.)

Teachers who learn to use the process of questioning not only equip themselves with a method for handling moral education in the classroom, but they give their students a pattern to follow when conflicts arise and no parent or teacher is there to guide them.

(Ms. Farley is Coordinator of Secondary English in the Spring Branch Independent School District, Houston.)

Values Clarification: A Selected Bibliography

Ron Lindsey

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Choices, Consequences, and Compositions

Sandy Stevens

"Why shouldn't I smoke pot?" "A can of beer? Why not?" "Should I live with my boyfriend before marriage?" "Why go to college?" "What do I want out of life?" All these questions and many more which challenge the basic values of many individuals, including teachers and parents, are confronting students right now.

While many teachers assign composition topics such as, "My Summer Vacation" and "How to Study for a Test," students are faced with disturbing questions that the classroom chooses to ignore. Ask most English students what their least favorite activity in class is and the answer is likely to be "writing compositions." And it's easy to understand this lack of interest when one realizes how little those assigned composition topics relate to the lives of students.

How then can the English teacher find topics which thirty students, each with widely divergent interests, find relevant? Perhaps the answer can be found in topics which give them an opportunity for self-examination and reflection. Teenagers have just discovered themselves as individuals and often find that discovery a fascinating one. So it is, for most, fun to write about those inner feelings.

Adolescence is a time of critical self-awareness. New ideas and new emotions are bombarding each student. "Who am I?" "What is important to me?" "What pattern will my life take?" These and many other questions can only be answered by individuals who have identified their system of values. For those without values, the answers cannot be found. Life assumes little direction or purpose. So, by providing students an opportunity to clarify values through composition, the teacher is accomplishing two goals simultaneously—giving students a chance to know themselves better and at the same time helping them to improve writing skills through an age-old technique known as practice.

Louis E. Raths, Sidney B. Simon, and others in the field now known as values clarification have developed a series of strategies designed to aid students in clarifying their values. These strategies appear in a wide variety of paperbacks now available to the classroom teacher. Most of the strategies adapt easily to composition topics. *Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students* by Sidney B. Simon, Leland W. Howe, and Howard Kirschenbaum, *Composition for Personal Growth* by Robert C. Hawley, Sidney B. Simon, and

D. D. Britton, and *Clarifying Values Through Subject Matter* by Merrill Harmin, Howard Kirschenbaum, and Sidney B. Simon are just a few that address themselves primarily to guiding students in the clarification of values, but which work easily in teaching the basic skill of writing.

One thing important to the success of values clarification through composition is establishing a sense of trust between students and teacher. Students must feel free to express themselves openly with no fear of ridicule. It is, therefore, impossible to grade the content of these compositions and at the same time accomplish the goals of clarifying values. Students would soon be expressing beliefs they think the teacher would like to hear, rather than expressing personal feelings. As to grading the mechanics of the composition, it is far better to make corrections and suggestions with the aim of improving subsequent papers rather than with the aim of assigning a grade. If a teacher does choose to grade the mechanics of the paper, it is imperative that students understand that their values are not being graded.

The following suggestions, used with an eighth grade English class, can be adapted to any grade level. The important point to note is that in each one, students have been drawn into the subject in a decision making role.

Choosing those things most important to them forces students to consider some very basic value-laden questions. What are those important things? Why are they important to me? Do they reflect the kind of life I want to be living?

In this strategy the teacher says: "A dangerous hurricane is approaching your home. Winds of well over one hundred miles an hour have been predicted. More importantly, though, such high tides and heavy rains are expected that your area is being evacuated to higher ground. The rest of your family as well as your pets will be evacuated. Food and other necessities of life will be provided for you in the evacuation shelter. In addition you will be allowed to carry three things with you. The three things you choose to take must be small enough for you to carry since space in the shelter is limited."

After the students have made their choices, they are asked to write a short composition outlining what they are taking and explaining why. They should consider the following questions in their paper: (1) Would my life change any without these? (2) If so, how would it change? (3) Would I consider the change harmful?

The next strategy might need to be discussed one day prior to the writing to allow students an opportunity to do some thinking beforehand. The teacher asks the students to think back over their entire lives. From all those experiences, they choose one day they consider the most perfect.

The following day the teacher says, "In a paragraph, you are to describe the most nearly perfect day of your life. Go into as much detail as you can remember—smells, sounds, etc. Describe the entire day from morning till night, if possible. After the description is complete consider the following questions in a subsequent paragraph: (1) What made your day so perfect? (2) Did your perfect day stem from something you did, or were others responsible? (3) Do you think you can be that happy again? (4) What can you do so that one day in the future you can be as happy as your past experience?

This final strategy is based on a mythology unit taught in eighth grade English. Most literature units lend themselves easily to composition topics that allow students to clarify their values.

The teacher says to the students: "Imagine yourself living in Greece at the time Olympian gods were worshipped. Zeus, as was his custom, has chosen to visit the earth in a human form. Because you were kind to him, and not knowing he was a god, offered to share your food, he has decided to reward you. After revealing himself as the ruler of Mount Olympus, he offers three gifts from which you may choose one. The gifts are: (1) Enough gold and silver to make you the richest man in Greece; (2) intelligence to make you a genius far superior to any known scholar; or (3) the power to become a king ruling not just one city-state, but all of the ancient world."

Ask students to write a paragraph explaining their choice. In the paragraph, they should consider these questions: (1) What would be the first thing I would do, "If I . . ." (2) What would I do for myself? (3) What would I do for the Greek society? Would I advance their civilization, or make life more comfortable? (4) How would I want people to treat me?

These suggestions as well as the many others which can be found in the above mentioned books may be the key not only to making composition more enjoyable for students, but also to allowing them an opportunity to sort out their values.

(Ms. Stevens teaches English in Pasadena.)

Call for Manuscripts
on
Teaching the
Mexican-American
and
Teaching Chicano Literature

Guest Editor
Philip Ortego

From Pulp to Gold or Using the Newspaper for Valuing

Judith Premazon

Scene 1: Departmental meeting in Typical High School

Tessie Teacher: I do fine with the kids who want to learn. But I have a couple of students in every class who always answer, "I don't know" regardless of what I ask them. What do you do with them?

Connie Consultant: Consider what that student response, "I don't know," might mean. It might mean, "I don't know the answer." It might mean, "I don't care." It might mean, "I'm thinking about much more important things, so bug off. I'm not sharing those things with you!"

Scene 2: Teacher's lounge in Typical High School

Tessie Teacher: I walked by your class at second period today, and the students really were busy. They seemed so involved in whatever you were doing in there. It was kind of noisy though.

Tommy Teacher: It really was a great session. The students were involved with an activity to help them know themselves better. I always seem to have good luck with student participation during these kinds of sessions.

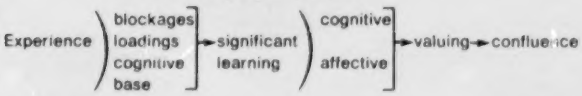
Tessie Teacher: I'll agree the students were involved, all right, but with the curriculum we have to cover how do you find time for those fun activities? I really feel accountable for my students knowing the course content. After all, the teacher they get next semester will expect them to know certain things. I just wouldn't feel professional if I didn't cover them in class.

These two brief scenes provide a basis for three principal problems in our schools today. The first problem is based on the misconception that all worthwhile activities conducted in classrooms attempt to involve students in searches for "right" answers to questions. The second misconception prevalent in our schools allows teachers to take at face value student responses like, "I don't know." The third misconception is the failure of teaching personnel to take into account those things which block student learning—student needs and/or concerns.

In this article the author presents a procedure for developing student awareness of self which leads to student choice which culminates in students' accepting responsibility for their own learning. No revolutionary concepts are going to be described. Rather, the author will describe procedural examples of the process being described, namely to place current theories into a whole, to assert that the whole is indeed greater than the sum of its parts, and to encourage the reader to experience the joy of confluence.

Let's return to the first scene which related the frustrations of a teacher in dealing with the student response, "I don't know," and some possible interpretations of that response. Figure 1 depicts a graphic representation of how the valuing process provides a catharsis for integrating experience for students.

Figure 1
Valuing as a Catharsis



Experiences consist of a person's responses to the universe at a given moment. How a person perceives this universe is constrained by that individual's cognitive support system, blockages and loadings. In order to progress from an experience to significant learning, the experience must be meaningful. The type of meaningful learning discussed here involves an individual's cognitive system.

Ausubel, cognitive psychologist, states that logical meaningfulness is a property of the material to be learned, e.g. the relationship between a new item to be learned and relevant items in the cognitive structure must be non arbitrary and contain the quality of substantiveness. This logical meaningfulness suggests only that the experience could be related to human learning capability. Meaningful learning, however, also means that the experience must be understandable by a particular human being, e.g. the learner could make it meaningful if he wanted to. Thus in order for learning to be meaningful regarding the individual's cognitive system Ausubel states that three conditions hold: (1) The experience itself must be relatable to some hypothetical cognitive structure in a nonarbitrary and substantive fashion, (2) The learner must possess relevant ideas to which to relate the material, and (3) The learner must possess the intent to relate these ideas to cognitive structure in a nonarbitrary and substantive fashion.

A student's "I don't know" response may be emitted, then, as a result of the first constraint upon experience—an inadequate cognitive support system. This would mean that a particular learner either has confronted an illogical task, a task for which he held no relevant ideas upon which to relate the task, or a task he had no intention of relating to his cognitive structure.

Other constraints upon experiences as they progress toward a confluent experience for an individual are blockages and loadings. Blockages are described by Brown as the underlying basis of human experience. They are the concerns and needs, both fundamental and personal, for any individual. Loadings are the affective aspects of all learning tasks which may enrich personal meaning.

When these three constraints have been dealt with by the individual learner, significant learning can occur. What probably exists for the individual learner at this time, however, is a state of discomfort or disinterest because cognitive learning and affective learning, as experienced by the learning task, have not been integrated. This is not to say that some learners may, by chance, have integrated the experience. What is being suggested is that the valuing process is the catharsis for integrating an experience for an individual learner, and when this process is planned for by the teacher and engaged in by the learner, the learner has had a confluent experience. The valuing process affords an individual the chance to personalize a learning experience. "Here are the facts and concepts," he says to himself; "what meaning do they have for me?" When the meaning becomes internalized for a given learner, he

has experienced confluence.

Let's return again to the "I don't know" student response. The second possible interpretation suggested was, "I don't care." What is there to care about if all learning experience is directed toward student acquisition of facts and concepts? An individual can discover a great deal to care about if the facts and concepts he acquires directly relate to him. It is the valuing experience a learner engages in that facilitates the progress from facts and concepts acquisition to relevance.

But what about the third possible interpretation of the "I don't know" response? How can the valuing experience possibly help a learner who is preoccupied with such activities as gazing out of the window, resting head on desk, and reading other materials, etc., rather than those specified by the teacher? Whatever the activity (or apparent lack of activity) an individual is engaged in, it must be important to him at that moment. Even if such activity is, for all intents and purposes, an avoidance type of behavior, for some reason that behavior has more valence for an individual than any other behavior in his repertoire at that moment. Valuing activities allow the teacher to change the pace, examine with a learner how the activity he is engaged in is important to him—more important in capturing his interest than the planned class activities.

What about the second scene? The author's response is a simple question, "How can you not provide time for students to become excited as their newly acquired information becomes relevant for each of them?"

When teachers provide time for valuing activities, they motivate their students by making learning relevant for individual learners. Thus experience evolves into significant learning and becomes a confluent experience for learners.

How then does a teacher communicate to a student that he is a legitimate object of learning? Classroom procedures and content must appear to be relevant to each student. An impossible task? No! The daily newspaper provides an excellent resource for instruction to meet this challenge. The information which appears in the newspaper is relevant in terms of immediacy. The information can also be relevant for each student. As students react to various parts of the paper, valuable responses can be shared among students and between students and teacher.

For example, a teacher might ask each student to select any portion of a single issue of a newspaper which provokes a personal reaction. Students may select from such items as a comic strip, an editorial, a human interest story, or an advertisement. Next, each student may be asked to share with his peers the reasons the portion he selected meant something to him. Oral communication is enhanced, but more important, the student develops awareness of himself as he reacts to the portion he selected. The teacher may then ask the student to write in response to this awareness procedure, "What I learned about myself as the result of my experience today."

Values related to personal attributes may be explored in a similar manner. A teacher may ask each student to select from the newspaper any article which he feels reveals personal attributes—an article, comic strip column, or editorial. The student then is asked to identify those attributes in order to develop awareness of his own values related to these attributes. The teacher then makes a composite list of the attributes identified by the students, or groups of students might compile such a list. Given this set of attributes each student places himself on a continuum the extremities of which identify the attribute and its antonym. For example, one article might have featured a fireman who participated in a brave act of rescue. Thus brave would appear on the accumulated list. Each student would make a continuum:

brave ——————————— coward

and place an X where he perceives himself in relation to this attribute. Along with developing awareness of self he develops vocabulary skills, e.g. designating the antonym. The teacher can then ask the student to explore orally in groups whether bravery is a desirable attribute. As differences of opinion are stated and varying circumstances are related, students are considering their positions regarding bravery and weighing the consequences of various positions related to bravery. The student may achieve confluence by writing a narrative in which a character is involved in a situation which requires either a brave or cowardly action. Then as the learner confronts historical and/or fictional characters his reactions to their brave or cowardly deeds are personal because he has examined his own position related to this attribute. A different assignment might be to ask each student to imagine himself in the situation in which the brave individual found himself. Students could role play the situation with the understanding that the outcome might be totally different from the newspaper incident.

Another strategy for clarifying student values using the newspaper requires students to select a human interest story and relate that story to a group of peers. Students in each group determine what set of values the person involved in the story might possess to act as he did. The teacher asks a spokesman from each group to share the group's findings with the entire class. A discussion then follows which asks students to explore how they know the values the persons possessed. Students then realize that one criterion for a value is that it requires action.

A mathematics teacher might give each student an imaginary sum of money to purchase anything he desires that is advertised in the newspaper. The student must obviously use mathematic skills for purchasing items within the allotted amount. This activity might be extended, however, to a valuing experience. Students could be asked to share reasons for selecting the items they purchased through the newspaper.

Placing priorities while considering a given set of items is a legitimate activity in value clarification. Students could be asked to peruse the front page of a newspaper. The teacher might ask them if they would arrange the front page in the same way the editors did. If they would change the position of the lead articles, or omit some to include other news on the front page, then they would, in effect, be revealing values different from the editors who arranged the makeup on the front page. Discussion would follow to help students supply reasons why they would or would not make changes.

Certain columns which appear regularly in newspapers reveal values and attitudes of the general public. Advice to the lovelorn columns, for instance, often reflect conflict of values which the students can identify and react to. The conflict may be within a certain individual or between the individual and the values of society. These discussions

can be lively and lead to written activities, socio-dramas, or pictorial accounts. Letters to the editors often reflect the concerns of the general public. Our concerns reveal our values. Students can decide whether their concerns are similar to or different from those expressed in the letters. Obituary columns are also a source for enabling students to become aware of their own values. Certainly many of the most prized values we hold relate to life and death. Fears and aspirations of students can be verbalized and students can be led to write their own obituaries which would reveal the kinds of things which are important to them.

Making investments using the financial section of the newspaper provides interesting mathematics activities, and activities in economics classes also can be generated from this section. Awareness of oneself as a risk taker, for example, can often be revealed by the type of transactions a person will make. This awareness can be developed further by the teacher providing situations in literature where characters have been faced with situations which required taking risks. Characters can then be analyzed according to their willingness to encounter situations which require them to take risks. Confluence can be achieved for students by role playing situations which demand varying degrees of risk taking. They can examine their own sense of comfort or discomfort through oral discussion or written activity.

News stories often feature confrontations which result in death. Values related to the life of individuals provide many opportunities for value clarification activities. Students can be asked, "Under what circumstances would you take the life of another human being?" "Is there any cause which would urge you to fight to the point of death?" Discussions of this kind can be culminated in short story writing, play writing, and socio-drama. The use of language to incite or stimulate action on the part of certain groups of people can be examined. Many situations could be devised to motivate students to write letters using this type of language and at the same time they can be developing their competency in letter writing.

These examples of using the newspaper to develop student awareness of values leading to value clarification and ultimately to confluent learning for students should serve to whet the imagination of teachers to experiment with the newspaper as a relevant, inexpensive source for involving students in class activities. Results of such activities are stimulating for students and gratifying for teachers. The teacher role as a facilitator for pupil learning in its grandest sense can be realized. Pulp becomes transformed into golden opportunities for all participants in learning.

(Dr. Premazon is Vice Principal for Instruction at the Magnet High School for the Engineering Professions, Houston.)

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New From NCTE . . .

"Any perceptive teacher has observed that adolescents are attempting to develop values in a confusing world." This is the comment of two teachers who have developed a set of humanistically oriented thematic units for secondary schools, just published by the National Council of Teachers of English. "A thematic approach," say Sylvia Spann and Mary Beth Culp, is "the most practical approach" to involving students with English because it "gives them an opportunity to integrate all of the language arts in relation to a theme or a problem as they do in real life."

Spann and Culp, of the University of South Alabama, are cochairs of an NCTE committee which over the past two years has collected classroom-tested teaching units on topics that range from aging to the search for self; from mass media and the representation of life to the individual conscience vs. established authority. Besides editors Spann and Culp, thirteen teachers bring their varied experiences and perspectives to this collection.

The units are designed to involve students in "questioning, reflecting, probing, wondering, and sometimes rebelling" as they use the language arts "for exploring the problems and questions inherent in the human condition." Each unit opens with teacher comments about how the unit was evolved and modified through classroom experience, an overview, and a sketch of its general objectives to which individual teachers are invited to add their own specifics. The lesson plans that follow are open-ended—designed to be expanded or shortened in response to student interest and school calendars.

Suggested teaching materials and supplemental readings offer teachers a basis on which to build with their own ideas. The units are activity-oriented. Contributors offer suggestions for evaluation which users can modify to fit their own specific course aims. Topics of the fifteen units:

How to Eat a Poem: An Introduction to Poetry
Poets on Work
Culture Outside the Metropolitan Museum, or, Buttermilk, Moonshine, and Turnip Greens
The Speaking Voice and the Search for Self
I Think I Saw a Theme: An Introduction to Filmmaking
It's the Real Thing! (Isn't It?) Media and the Representation of Life
Death: A Lively Experience
Utopia: Dream or Reality?
The Hero as "Super" Man
A Moral Dilemma: Individual Conscience versus Established Authority
Grow Old Along With Me
You and the Family
Out of the Cauldron, Into the Classroom: The World of the Occult
Encounter: A Unit on Sports Literature
The Future Arrives Before the Present Has Left

The thematic units are published in loose-leaf format which allows for addition of the individual teacher's own materials. A grant from the Research Committee of the University of South Alabama helped the editors initiate the project.

Thematic Units in Teaching English and the Humanities. Sylvia Spann and Mary Beth Culp, editors, and the NCTE Committee on Thematic Units. 208 pages, 3-hole punched sheets, plastic wrapped, with binder and tabs—price, $6.95; NCTE members, $6.50. NCTE Stock No. 53720. Three-hole punched sheets, plastic wrapped, no binder—price, $4.95; NCTE members, $4.50. NCTE Stock No. 53739.

Comments on Students' Right to Their Own Language*

Elisabeth McPherson

The Conference on College Composition and Communication resolution, passed last spring, and endorsed in a slightly different version by NCTE in November, 1974, won't be worth much unless it comes out of the conference and into the classroom. The CCCC resolution, for those who haven't seen it, reads:

> We affirm the students' right to their own patterns and varieties of language—the dialects of their own nurture or whatever dialects in which they find their own identity and style. Language scholars long ago denied that the myth of standard American dialect has any validity. The claim that any one dialect is unacceptable amounts to an attempt of one social group to exert its dominance over another. Such a claim leads to false advice for speakers and writers, and immoral advice for humans. A nation proud of its diverse heritage and its cultural and racial variety will preserve its heritage of dialects. We affirm strongly that teachers must have the experiences and training that will enable them to respect diversity and uphold the right of students to their own language.

A background statement, explaining the reasons for the resolution, is available from NCTE for 75¢—35¢ in lots of 100 or more.

In spite of the long background statement, however, emotional reactions get in the way of our responses, and there are a lot of misconceptions floating about. The statement *does* mean students should be allowed to talk and write in their own dialect without being "corrected," but it does *not* say they should not be allowed to learn another dialect if they want to. Dialect differences should not be used as an excuse for keeping them out of the important part of education.

And though it's certainly true that there is no such thing as a "standard American dialect"—so-called "standard" is itself just one of a number of dialects—there is something that might be called "edited American English." It's in newspapers, magazines, and ordinary books, if copyreaders and manuscript editors have been careful, and sometimes in business letters and political speeches. But it seldom occurs in first drafts of anything, and students should be told that it's a final and superficial step, not the important part of writing.

Probably the resolution can't keep American society from using language differences as a way of keeping people "in their place," but good teaching will explain to students that prestige is the only thing that makes one dialect better than another—then the students can make their own choices. When we teach as though one kind of language is "right," another "wrong," we're teaching a lot of students to despise themselves, and doing very little about helping them advance economically. People are kept out of jobs not because of their dialects but because of their skin colors and their home backgrounds. To say otherwise is probably to deceive.

Another misunderstanding concerns diversity. The resolution doesn't say, of course, that we should *encourage* diversity, just that we shouldn't discourage it, and there's not much likelihood that differences will grow greater. On the contrary, radio, film, and television move us all toward sounding alike.

Finally, it seems self-evident that people dealing in language should know a lot about the nature of language. Unfortunately, most English teachers are trained in the nature of literature—much as though math teachers studied nothing but Aristotelean logic.

If we can all get better training in the nature of language and dialects, understand the NCTE/CCCC resolutions as statements we must live up to, and really begin accepting our students' dialects without criticism, we can get down to the real business of writing: we can deal with distortion, fallacy, slant and tone. We can help students organize their ideas, support their general statements with specific examples, read more critically, and convince them that it's better—and more effective—to sound like human beings instead of like textbooks.

(Ms. McPherson teaches English at Forest Park Community College, St. Louis, Missouri.)

* Summary of a presentation at TCTE convention in Dallas, February, 1975.

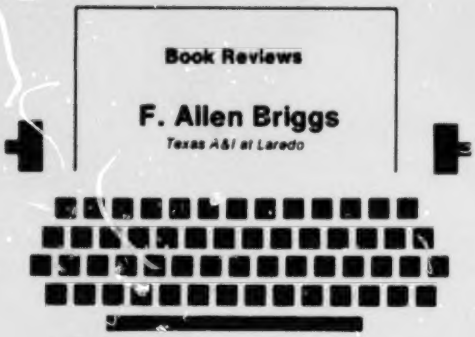
Call for Manuscripts

Teaching Basic Skills

(deadline March 25)

Guest Editor

Ernestine P. Sewell



Texans Write

This section of reviews is a regular feature of *English in Texas*. It is limited to the review of books by Texas authors and to books which are about Texas. Emphasis will be given to books which may be useful to schools, teachers, and students, but items of more general interest will also be considered. The section can best serve its purpose through the help of Council members and others in the profession. The reviewer solicits information about new Texas books and correspondence with persons who will assist in writing the reviews.

As those of you who are consistent readers of Texans Write already know, the policy of this column is to limit itself to books by Texas authors or on Texas subjects. Of course there is a phrase in our "charter" which permits reviews of books of special interest to Texas teachers, and that phrase will be the excuse for doing two of the reviews which appear this issue. [Part of the underlying reason could be that the reviewer spent part of the summer in Europe and so wasn't as consistent in his prodding of publishers as he sometimes tries to be.] At any rate, there will be two Texas books; one of the others occasions so many superlatives that readers may question their eyes, but—"Try it; you might like it."

Rhodes, Evan H. *The Prince of Central Park*. New York: Coward McCann, 1975. $7.95.

Novels for the young come in various guises—saccharine condescending, contrived, didactic, cute, and sometimes sickening. A characteristic of a classic book for children is that it can be read by persons of every age with enjoyment; frequently the book was written for "people" not children. *The Prince of Central Park* deserves a nomination for "classic" status.

The book has the setting and cast of characters for a Naturalistic novel. The hero is a twelve-year-old, deserted by his parents, enmeshed in the bloodless clutch of "Aid For Dependent Children," victimized by a cheap slut who is kind to him only just before the social worker calls, threatened by the apartment junky who needs to kill him so that he cannot testify in an approaching assault and robbery case. The seamy side of life is taken for granted as the way things are, but the author never licks his chops in relish as do so many.

Robinson Crusoe adventure happens in the most unlikely of places—mid-Manhattan—Central Park. The lad flees the "home" the government has bought for him in a pathetically funny scene when he rips up the tattered blonde wig of his drunken keeper so that he will not be tempted to crawl back when the going gets tough. He finds shelter in a tree in the "wildest" area of the Park, eats what he can scrounge from garbage cans, steals boards to build himself a shelter in his tree (but refuses to drive in nails which would hurt the tree which has been so nice to him), and even robs a restaurant in the Park so that he will have supplies for the winter.

In a wry incident he frees himself from the coils of the school system because he knows that the system will not miss him unless his "card" is there to remind the authorities that he did exist. He breaks into his school building, purloins his health card and his attendance card (and wrecks the "even tenor" of the school guard's pleasant evening), and with no record remaining behind, he has disappeared.

The other principal person is from the other end of life, but she, too, belongs to a group which society would ignore. An ancient widow, existing in her dreary hotel room, shunted off by her daughter and family, getting by on memories and social security payments, is an object of interest only to the villain junky who watches the local branch bank to find a likely "rip-off." Tentatively these two wary outcasts approach each other, perhaps simply because they *are* human beings.

There is even a foil for the boy, an equally derelict pup who steals the "prince's" scraps, hangs around the tree trunk, and is finally accepted into the family when he is too sick to take care of himself: the boy needs somebody who is worse off than he.

The book has everything—pathos, satire, adventure, chases, danger, an animal. The multitude of ingredients are stirred into a mixture that should appeal to all; there is even a "happy ending."

The Prince of Central Park is Romantic in the most fundamental sense of the term. Critics often label as romantic plots that are really fairy tales, when all things (no matter how illogical) work together for the good of the hero or heroine. Such stories are not romantic; they are escapist literature as definitely as are tales set in a Utopia or on a far planet. This story is romantic in the fundamental sense that the chief characters believe in and are good because goodness is a basic quality of humanness, often remaining visible only in the very young and very old, where society doesn't bother to extinguish the spark.

Wittig, Susan. *Steps to Structure: An Introduction to Composition and Rhetoric*. Cambridge, Mass.: Winthrop Publishers, Inc., 1975.

For the rock-bound (rockheaded?), conservative grammarian whose language sun rises and sets in Bishop Lowth and prescriptive syntax, here is an answer to the most frequently asked questions when "modern grammar" is mentioned. What practical use can be made of all this transformational theory? Where can you find a book simple enough to be understood by students? The answers are in Ms. Wittig's text; whether the objectors will read them is an entirely different matter.

The treatment begins at the point where I would distinguish syntax from rhetoric: syntax (to me) is the patterns by which the meanings of words are limited and made specific in sentences, and rhetoric is the patterns by which sentences are combined into reasoned and effective discourse. Ms. Wittig is not concerned with basic (simple) sentences; she begins with what I would call additive transformations: the combination of two basic sentences into a more effective single sentence. As far as I have been able to tell, she outlines and gives practice in all kinds of transformations but does it in easy to follow, step-by-step procedures which should be within the grasp of fifty percent of beginning college freshmen, those who come out of high school able to write various kinds of simple sentences.

The second section of the book carries the same techniques into the construction of paragraphs. She offers insight into all of the standard varieties of paragraph structure but does it in a definite and progressive fashion. I think she says, "If you know the pattern to follow, you can construct a good paragraph as definitely as an engineer constructs a bridge." She successfully avoids the maze that confuses so many students; she teaches that good writing is an intellectual, rational process; it is never a "feeling" which is sacred and unassailable.

She does use considerable technical vocabulary and a good many of the terms seem to be her own, but she explains every word and the concept it symbolizes. Teachers may quail at the task of learning the specific lexicon; students should not since they have to unlearn little and are often quite innocent of any vocabulary to explain their writing processes.

The book could be used in an old-fashioned classroom where the students study the assignment and listen to (maybe participate in) the teacher's repetition of what the text said—there is hardly ever an opportunity for the students to remember old stories and events. Students might even learn something that way.

A far better use of *Steps to Structure* would be in an individually prescribed and guided situation when students work at their own speed and their own levels. Ms. Wittig's experience in computer assisted instruction probably indicates the direction she would take.

One of the most valuable sections is a two-inch piece of type in every chapter where the author tells the student very specifically, in behavioral terms, exactly what will be accepted as valid evidence of learning. In my own experience, such statements which prevent the student's guessing about "the test" are the greatest of aids to student morale.

I wondered, when I finished writing this review, if I had used any of Ms. Wittig's paragraph structures; I did not find my composition in her mirror.

Phillips, Ellen Ramsay. *4 & 20 Mirlos* [4 and 20 Blackbirds: a Bilingual Collection of Twenty-four Folksongs in English and Spanish]. Laredo, Texas: Privately printed, 1972. May be ordered from Foster M. Phillips, 1505 Rosario, Laredo, Texas 78040 for $2.00.

Because desirable material for use in a bilingual, bicultural situation is actually so very scarce and often of questionable accuracy, there is some reason for calling attention to specific items, although they are small, which fill a need. This little book, which contains both the words in English and Spanish and the tunes for 24 popular songs suitable for children, offers some material not otherwise available.

There are songs from the English tradition ("Farmer in the Dell," "Old MacDonald Had a Farm," "Baa, Baa, Black Sheep") and from the Spanish culture ("Duermete, Niño," "Las Mañantias," "Aunque Soy Pequeñuelo"). The tunes are written very simply so that a teacher with only a little skill on the piano, a recorder, a flute, or another easy to play (badly) instrument can convey the melody. Some of the translations are a bit formal, using words which a child might not know: I think that "bower" in the English translation of "Naranja Dulce, Limon Partido" might take some explaining.

There are a number of song books in both Spanish and English. Some of them attempt to be bicultural as well as bilingual. I like this little volume because of the attractiveness of the material for children, the inclusion of several songs I have not elsewhere seen, but especially because of the simplicity with which the tunes are written. Even I, unmusical as a crow, can see myself using these songs. The books may be ordered from the son of Mrs. Phillips (as noted above); a single copy is $2.00 postpaid; he may make special arrangements for multiple copies.

Oral Reading Criterion Test for Determining Independent and Instructional Reading Levels. Dreier Educational Systems, 320 Raritan Ave., Highland Park, N. J. 08904.

It has been said that the world must be rediscovered every generation. If the statement is a truism, it is as true for teachers as it is for other people. Ladies say that, if you keep a costume long enough, it will come back into style; but whether it be old or new, good material is always useful. I see nothing innovative in this reading test (but the publishers only imply uniqueness in the "Reproduction Prohibited" statement), but I agree that the technique is one that teachers should know.

The test, itself, provides a system of establishing the "reading level" at which a student can work by asking him to read aloud certain evaluated passages. His functional level is pegged at the point when his oral reading evidences certain amounts of error. The technique is one which my wife, an elementary teacher of more years of experience than either of us like to admit, has been using for many years; she just used text books instead of test passages as the basis of the evaluation. The instructions are not specific in one point; I wonder when the "error" would occur. Take the word "sitting"; most students I know in South Texas would call the word "seat-in" or "settin'"; would either be an error? Another point is in item No. 7 of the printed test as I have it: the text reads "His audience comprised two thousand foreign-borne men . . ."; which would be the error if the word was said "born" as the sense requires or "borne" as the spelling dictates?

The second feature of the pamphlet is a graph designed to help a teacher estimate the reading level of the printed material used in the class; the design follows the patterns established by Ed Fry of Rutgers University. A closer examination of the technique, however, recalls a much older "readability formula," the one used by Rudolph

Flesch in such a book as his *The Art of Readable Writing*. The difference between the formulae lies in Fry's omission of Flesch's item "personal reference" and the substitution of the term "syllable" for Flesch's 'ideogram' category; both use the number of words in a sentence as a factor. Syllable and ideogram are not homonyms; although sometimes a syllable is an idea, "anti," for example, and "nation" are affixes of two syllables with a single idea.

Fry's statistics show close correlation between his system and other formulae; I do not doubt the system is easy to apply and the results practical. I suppose I am too much of a humanist to give up the contention that, when logic and figures part company, I'd rather follow reason.

The Dreier "Oral Reading Criterion Test" is a quick and practical way of administering a time-tested reading assessment, and almost anybody can get a readability level by the Fry system; perhaps a handy format for an old technique is enough excuse for being. I do wish, however, that the editing had been a bit more careful.

Implementing Values Clarification Strategies in Your Classroom

Zenobia Verner

So you want to use values clarification strategies in your classroom? Traditionally when we have been introduced to new, provocative educational theory or practice, we want to try it. Too often, however, we may try once and not achieve the expected outcome. Possibly we still have not learned that instant success is extremely rare—that we need time for trial, error, analysis, re-trial to implement new strategies successfully.

Too often, perhaps, we try to begin at a point where we see some other successful, enthusiastic teacher. However we need time to develop strategies through the above process, particularly to analyze our successes and failures and to consider alternatives which might have resulted in different outcomes.

First, let us profit from others' mistakes. One mistake teachers frequently make in implementing values clarification strategies in the classroom is starting with activities that they have not prepared students to deal with. They have not established an environment in which students feel free to handle the tasks or deal with the feelings we ask them to explore. Writers of most of the books listed in Mr. Lindsey's bibliography deal with this issue, yet teachers may be so eager to find something they can take and use in their classrooms tomorrow that they overlook such cautions.

Four teachers confronted this problem last summer in a class I taught for the University of Alabama at the Tehran American School in Tehran, Iran. Those teachers were enthusiastic about the possibilities for using values clarification strategies in their own classrooms and in furnishing their classmates and colleagues with sufficient guidance to get started on their own.

The result of their efforts was a guide for implementing values clarification strategies in the classroom. Their guide included a teacher information packet of resource materials, six teacher objectives, and a systematic presentation of suggested student objectives, activities, resources, and a calendar. In addition they furnished a system for individual teachers to determine the degree of implementation of various strategies for values clarification.

Their six teacher objectives include: (1) Make a decision to work on valuing, (2) Assess your position as to which enablers you will need by studying the teacher information pack, (3) Read Raths and at least two of the resource books mentioned in the bibliography, (4) State Raths' seven valuing criteria, (5) Write Raths' value indicators and their uses, and finally (6) Guide students in the valuing process by use of the several strategies presented in the resource material. (They included materials on these seven strategies in the teacher information packet.)

Their teacher information packet included cognitive material such as that presented by the various authors in this issue of *English in Texas*—a rationale, major points from various persons with expertise, examples of suggested strategies, and a bibliography of sources.

As I looked over the articles Ron Lindsey had assembled for this journal, it occurred to me that teachers could use the material presented in this journal as their information packet and follow the systematic approach to the teaching of values those Tehran American School teachers proposed in their "Implementation Guide for Personalizing Instruction—Values Clarification."

Perhaps you are wondering why I would suggest your using a guide prepared by teachers on the far side of the world. I should like to point out that those teachers teach in a school enrolling over 3,000 students, each of which holds an American passport. Of course their students are in the process of examining values foreign to them. Yet your own students will very likely find that others in their own class, community, or mass media hold values that are just as foreign to their values as are Iranian values to students in the Tehran American School.

An edited version of one page from their guide follows. Be sure to remember that their suggestions are just that —suggestions. Because of the value-laden nature of materials used in English classes, you may be able to develop an environment conducive to the use of extensive values clarification strategies much more quickly than their calendar suggests. If so, fine, but do check their assessment of degree of implementation to assist you in determining when to proceed to other values clarification activities.

Here then are their suggestions. Note that Column 1 contains one teacher objective followed by seven student objectives. In column 2 they present their recommended seven strategies selected from the many proposed by Raths. Column 3 contains a list of resources for your use in planning the activity. A suggested calendar appears in Column 4. I took the liberty of editing it to the trimester plan of most Texas schools rather than leaving it in its original form to fit their four-quarter system. And finally, Column 5 consists of a series of questions designed to help you determine the degree of implementation of the various strategies.

When you have explored the use of the strategies they suggest, then it will be time for you to analyze your successes and failures, review your resources or read additional books from the bibliography, and design your own implementation guide (I-Guide) for future exploration in the teaching of values. I especially recommend that you read the book by Howe and Howe to assist you in your decision making. Good luck. Have fun! May your experience be a "value"able (sic) one.

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Implementation Guide for Personalizing Instruction Through Values Clarification

Gail Bistany, Pamela Crews, Anne Hammond, Beth Minasian

Objectives (Objective 1 is a teacher objective.) (Objectives 2-8 are student objectives.)	Activities	Resources	Calendar	Assessment of Degree to Which You Have Implemented the Strategy
(1) The teacher will reach a decision regarding the use of values clarification strategies as a method of personalizing instruction.	Read three books on values	Raths plus two others from bibliography	Before school or first trimester	Do you wish to implement values clarification strategies in your classes? ☐ Yes ☐ No If you checked *yes*, proceed to the next objective.
(2) Students will consider their choices regarding that which they prize.	Values clarifying response	Raths, pp. 51-82	As soon as possible, but no later than middle of trimester 1	Have you used more than one clarifying response in each class for at least one week? ☐ Yes ☐ No. When you can answer *yes*, proceed to the next objective.
(3) Students will each privately appraise general long range goals they consider important as guiding principles in their lives.	Value survey	Simon, p. 112, or your choice	Near end of trimester 1	Have you involved students in value surveys at least three times? ☐ Yes ☐ No. If *yes*, go to the next objective.
(4) Students will consider alternatives to both a moderate stand and to a stand at either extreme of an issue.	Value continuum	Simon, p. 119, or your choice	Beginning of trimester 2	Have you used values continuum activities with students at least two times? ☐ Yes ☐ No. If *yes*, proceed to the next objective.
(5) Students will react to a provocative statement and a series of questions which raise an issue having value implications.	Value sheet	Raths, p. 83	Middle of trimester 2	Have you used a values sheet at least once per month for three months? ☐ Yes ☐ No. If *yes*, proceed to the next objective.
(6) Students will draw conclusions privately and share them with a group regarding a daily incident that reflects a particular value, such as honesty.	Value-clarifying discussion	Raths, p. 113	Near end of trimester 2	Have you involved students in this activity at least once this month? ☐ Yes ☐ No. If *yes*, proceed to the next objective.)
(7) Students will participate in role playing situations in which they must assume roles different from their own and confront situations involving values.	Role-playing	Hawley or your choice	Beginning of trimester 3	Have you involved students in this activity at least two times? ☐ Yes ☐ No. If *yes*, proceed to the next objective.
(8) Students will express their attitudes toward a value-laden contrived incident.	Contrived incident	Raths, pp. 123-125		Have you involved students in this activity at least once? ☐ Yes ☐ No. If *yes*, you are ready to proceed in planning future activities.

(Gail Bistany, Pamela Crews, Anne Hammond, and Beth Minasian teach in the Tehran American School, Tehran, Iran.)